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ARMY AND NAVY TEXTBOOKS AND MANUALS USED BY THE NORTH DURING THE CIVIL WAR—PART I

by Francis A. Lord

Of the few remaining "neglected fields" of research in the Civil War period, one of the most surprisingly fertile and rewarding is in the field of manuals and books of instruction. The war literature itself is already replete with general histories, biographies, and, to a lesser extent, unit histories as well. However, practically nothing has been written about the manuals which were used to instruct officers and men in such essentials as the school of the soldier, the manual of the piece, and the complicated maneuvers required of higher units in battle deployment.

These manuals were used in great numbers and were of almost infinite variety. Men of all grades and ability wrote manuals. The mere fact that the Secretary of War authorized a particular drill system to be used did not prevent unit commanders from using another system which they considered superior! By the end of the first year of the war this tendency had given way to a reasonable uniformity but various systems were experimented with from time to time and the result is an astonishingly large number of manuals and books of instructions, both official and unofficial which appeared from 1861 to 1865. The more widely used ones are listed in the accompanying bibliography but it must be assumed that others exist which have escaped notice and which perhaps some reader possesses or has seen elsewhere.

In examining Civil War manuals and military books, one is struck by the persistent influence of French military doctrine and tactics. This influence extended from the Napoleonic period to the Crimea and is sharply reflected in most American military authors from Winfield Scott to George B. McClellan. Both of these officers observed French

troops in Europe and both wrote manuals based on the French system. Several young regular army officers translated French manuals and military memoirs for American readers; some translations were especially well done, particularly Halleck's four-volume work on Jomini's Napoleon, Benet's work on Waterloo, and Holabird's translation of Jomini's Treatise on Grand Military Operations. During this period there was little use made of British military experience. Some of this lack of interest was doubtless due to the traditional hostility of the United States for Great Britain during this period.

Perhaps the most determining factor, however, was the favorable impression made on American military observers and soldiers of fortune who served in the French army. Doubtless the best known of the military adventurers was Philip Kearney who fought in Algiers where the French had adopted the Zouave system in 1830. Although a few officers (notably Scott) had been sent to Europe as individual observers, it was not until the Crimean War that the War Department inaugurated the policy of sending teams of carefully selected young professional officers to study first hand the various foreign military systems. Among those who went to the Crimea was Captain George B. McClellan who stated in his report that he considered the French Zouaves to be the best troops he had ever seen and that to defeat such troops would be the greatest honor of all.

As a result of the report of McClellan and other enthusiastic writers, the Zouave system became very popular with the American public which was only too well aware of the obvious defects of the militia system. Among the "converts" was young

Elmer E. Ellsworth who decided to organize his own unit which would be radically different from the other militia units, most of which put social conviviality first and military efficiency last. Noting that the French Zouaves were "selected for their fine physique and tried courage," Ellsworth carefully recruited for his "U. S. Zouave Cadets," trained them in the Zouave drill, and, in 1859, challenged to competitive drill "any company of the militia or regular Army of the United States or Canada." In contrast to the ponderous and unimaginative movements of Scott or Hardee, this new organization of Ellsworth's used a drill system which, while difficult to master, did result after prolonged training in a spectacular demonstration of intricate timing and machine-like precision. To Ellsworth the French Zouaves appeared to be the realization of what an armed body of men ought to be, and he prepared a drill manual for his Zouave Cadets which was used in his sensational victories in the drill competitions of 1859-1860.

Although killed early in the war, Ellsworth lived long enough to see his Zouave system used or imitated by many militia and volunteer regiments both East and West.

The books of "tactics," or drill regulations as they are termed today, varied greatly in content and degree of simplicity. Some of the older systems of tactics were "resurrected" decades after their orginal appearance, often unrevised, and were offered for sale primarily because their authors were household names. Often these older manuals, although reprinted in 1861, contained the original text and explanatory plates applicable to the flintlock musket which had been superseded two decades before the war began! Manuals written by erstwhile United States regular army officers (like Cooper and Hardee) were reprinted, sometimes without any indication of authorship, after the authors themselves had joined the C. S. Army. Many of these officers attained high rank in the Confederate service, especially Cadmus M. Wilcox, Henry Heth, and, of course, W. J. Hardee. Nor did the Confederate authorities fail to use a good thing when they had it; they appropriated for their own use such works as the U. S. Ordnance Manual, Mahan's works on engineering, and Cooke's Cavalry tactics.

Although the Government Printing Office printed various manuals and books of instructions, it did not do so on a large scale until about 1863. Mean-

while several well-known publishing houses, such as Harpers, Lippincott, and Van Nostrand, tended to dominate the field. Lippincott concentrated heavily on medical manuals while Van Nostrand covered a wide variety of military and naval subjects. Even before 1861, David Van Nostrand had gone into the publishing of military and naval books in earnest. When the war broke out his friendship with such men as Brigadier General J. G. Barnard and others was continued and these men prepared some excellent professional monographs and books which were published by Van Nostrand who became the "official publisher for the United States Army and Navy." His business cards, preserved in the publishing company's archives, carry that phrase. Two books are particularly noteworthy: Captain S. B. Luce's Seamanship was published in 1861 and was the official naval textbook of the U.S. Naval Academy and the U.S. Navy until 1898. At the outbreak of the Civil War the U.S. Army was lacking a satisfactory system of infantry drill; this need was supplied by Brigadier General Silas Casey, whose system of "tactics," published in 1862 by Van Nostrand, was adopted as the standard guide for training the Union Army. It was also reproduced in Richmond and used by the C. S. Army.

In addition to the manuals and books of instructions, there is a wealth of detailed information for the historian and collector in the General Orders and Army Regulations issued to troops during the war. The General Orders, as promulgated by the Adjutant General's office (and even by armies, corps, and divisions), contain many examples of specific instructions for the information of the lower units. Also, from 1861 to 1863, the General Orders contained the reports of findings by general courts martial. A study of these is eminently worthwhile because in them one gets an almost contemporaneous insight into the army, with its varied types of rugged individualism and the resulting problems in maintenance of discipline. Fortunately, the charges and specifications of the individual court martial report usually contain the exact words which the undisciplined farmer boy used when expressing his personal opinion of the company commander! Such reports make very interesting reading and convince us that very little change has taken place in the vocabulary which the American soldier uses during times of stress. Early in 1864 reports of court martial findings were issued separately from the General Orders,



Figures from Brigadier General Silas Casey's INFANTRY TACTICS, Volume I. The plates in this volume are more representative of Civil War military dress than those in the average manual of the period.

not through any special desire to avoid publicity but because the number of such trials increased greatly with the influx of drafted men after the middle of 1863. Valuable, also, are the 1857, 1861, and 1863 editions of the *Army Regulations* since they governed so closely the officers and soldiers during service. Such details as uniforms, equipment, and organization are readily located in the *Regulations*.

The services of the Union Army differed widely in the extent to which they supplied their members with manuals of instruction. In addition to an almost daily issuance of general orders, the Adjutant General's Department supplied its clerks with detailed instructions in printed form, company commanders with examples how to maintain the company records, and instructions to recruiting officers. Because of the excellent works by Benet and De Hart, there was considerable uniformity in preparation and reporting of court martial cases, all of which came eventually for review to the

Judge Advocate General's Department. In the field of international law, Francis Lieber's book on rules of land warfare, written in 1863, has become a classic.

As one would expect, some of the best and most professional manuals were written by engineer officers. Long before the war, young and professionally competent engineers were publishing excellent technical studies of various aspects of civil and military engineering.

During the war the Federal engineer units received their training from the small regular company of engineers which was enlarged 3 August, 1861, to a force of 49 officers and 600 men. Volunteer regiments of engineers were raised and received a large and educated class of civil engineers who were commissioned as officers. The enlisted personnel, drawn from artisans, road workers, and lumbermen, were given a brief course in basic military training and then additional military engineering training. The manuals in general use by engineer units were: D. H. Mahan's Treatise on Field Fortifications (originally appeared in 1836 and revised a third time in 1863); and J. C. Duane's Manual for Engineer Troops which appeared during the war. Mahan was Professor of Military and Civil Engineering at the United States Military Academy, while Duane was Chief Engineer of the Army of the Potomac.

The remaining arms and services of the Federal Army received very little training of any description. The United States Military Railroads were officered by ex-civilians who had had previous railroad experience and manned by inexpert labor. The United States Military Telegraph Corps was in reality a civilian bureau attached to the Quartermaster Department in which a few of its favored members received commissions. The Signal Corps had a camp of instruction at Fort Monroe, Virginia, to which officers and men were detailed from volunteer infantry regiments. This camp was soon superseded by one at Georgetown, D. C. which was opened 29 August 1861, where instruction was given in flag signalling, the telescope, reconnaissance, torch signalling at night, signal flares, rockets, and the electric telegraph. The Balloon Corps of the Federal Army was composed entirely of civilians under the leadership of Professor T. S. C. Lowe, a prominent aeronaut. Ground crews to assist the balloonists were detailed from regiments in the immediate vicinity of the balloon and were untrained for their work. They had to be instructed by the aeronauts, a process that was repeated whenever the balloon moved its base of operations.

The services, Quartermaster, Commissary, Paymaster, Ordnance, Intelligence, Adjutant General's Department, and Judge Advocate's Department, drew their personnel from the civilians who possessed abilities that peculiarly fitted them for the specialized work they would have to perform. There is no evidence that these services gave any specific training to their personnel, although training manuals were used in some cases, especially by members of such services who served with line units.

The Medical Department was officered by doctors, most of whom had received professional training. No special training in removing the wounded seems to have been given the musicians who acted as stretcher bearers in combat, but the Ambulance Corps, which was an integral part of the military organization, was drilled in removing wounded from the field. In addition to some small pamphlets published by the U. S. Sanitary Commission there were several technical medical manuals available for doctors assigned as surgeons or assistant surgeons in base hospitals or with line units.

Although there were several systems of drill regulations for the infantry, the most commonly used early in the war were Scott's Tactics (3 volumes) and William J. Hardee's Tactics (2 volumes). Scott's system was reprinted in 1861 with no changes from the first edition of 1835. The infantry company drilled in two ranks and loaded "in twelve times." Hardee's tactics prescribed a manual of loading in nine times.

In 1862 it was found necessary to discard both Scott and Hardee due to lack of uniformity in the two drill systems, and a 3-volume set of tactics appeared. The new system, like Scott's and Hardee's, was based on the French system. This new set of tactics, prepared by Brigadier General Silas Casey, was officially prescribed for regulars, volunteers, and militia. Casey kept the double rank formation but increased the intervals between regiments and brigades. The brigade became the tactical unit in deployment, which, in general was to be made upon the heads of columns. This was considered to be the safest and most rapid means of forming line of battle. The "direct step" was to be 28 inches in length at the rate of 90 a minute;

the "double quick step" was to be 33 inches in length at the rate of 165 a minute. Loading was to be done "in eight or nine times" according to whether the soldier was using the Maynard primer or the percussion cap type of rifle musket.

Casey himself was not too sold on his system and told the War Department at the time he submitted his Tactics that "most undoubtedly there are still improvements to be made." The exigencies of war prevented much change but by 1864 the merits and demerits of Casey's system had been subjected to the test of combat. A brilliant young professional soldier, General Emory Upton had meanwhile been formulating his ideas on tactical deployment in battle and was convinced that changes were necessary. Using a battalion of the Second Connecticut Heavy Artillery (serving, however, as infantry), he gave a demonstration of his projected drill system to some distinguished general officers a few days before the battle of Winchester. The reaction was encouraging but unfortunately Upton was wounded in the battle.

On recovery from his wound he sought service in the Cavalry in order to familiarize himself with that branch of service. Active service in the Selma campaign, in which the cavalry, armed with the Spencer carbine acted mostly as mounted infantry, was of the greatest value to Upton. Tactics became the theme of his daily conversation. The war soon ended but in January, 1866, Upton submitted his ideas to the Army and they were officially adopted in August, 1867.

These tactics were a fundamental change from the old French system; they reduced the number of commands and were much simpler and easier to understand. The old facings were abolished. Wheeling was now to be by fours, thereby permitting a column of fours to form directly to the right, left, front, or rear. Upton's system permitted a unit commander to form line in any direction easily because no cognizance had to be taken of inversions. The reader will recall many instances where units in the Civil War lost invaluable time because of the necessity of "getting straightened out" from approach march in column before forming line in presence of the enemy.

Civil War cavalry tactics date back to 1826 when a board of officers was convened to report "a complete system of cavalry tactics." Major General Scott was president of the board whose tactics were published in 1834 and were thereafter known as the "Scott's Tactics." The system

was a double-rank deployment, in which two troops, side by side, each in double rank, constituted a squadron, and four squadrons a regiment. In 1841, while J. R. Poinsett was Secretary of War, these tactics were modified, with the main change being that now a regiment would consist of 10 companies or 5 squadrons. These new drill regulations, like Scott's, were mainly a translation from the French. They were called the '41 Tactics or Poinsett Tactics and, despite various attempts to improve them, were in use by the Eastern armies throughout the war. The Western cavalry used the '41 Tactics until 1864 when it began to use a system prepared by Colonel Philip St. George Cooke. Cooke's system was officially adopted by the War Department 1 November 1861 but was little used although the War Department stated that "all additions or departures from the exercises and maneuvers laid down are positively forbidden."

The principles of the Cooke Tactics differ materially from any preceding them. The single rank formation for cavalry is here introduced. In 1857 the War Department published McClellan's famous report on foreign armies. In this report, McClellan recommended that the single rank formation be adopted. Cooke acknowledged getting his ideas from conversations with McClellan. Actually, the British Legion had tested the single rank formation in Spain in 1833-1834 and had found that it greatly simplified all cavalry movements. In the Western armies of the Confederacy, the single rank formation began to be used early in the war. Morgan used it from the start, and soon Forrest and Wheeler also began to use it due to the conditions under which they were operating. Wheeler wrote a system of cavalry tactics which were adopted by the Army of the Tennessee, 17 February 1864.

In contrast with the infantry and cavalry branches of the service, the tactics for the Federal artillery were uniformly accepted from the very beginning of the war. This fact did not prevent various proponents of new systems from attempting to get their manuals adopted by the War Department, but despite the excellence of some of these, especially Roberts' and Gibbon's, the field artillery tactics of 1860 and the heavy artillery tactics of 1862 remained the officially accepted systems for the Federal artillery. John Gibbon's excellent Artillerist's Manual, written in 1860, was reprinted during the war but never adopted by the War Department. When Gibbon first met Lincoln,

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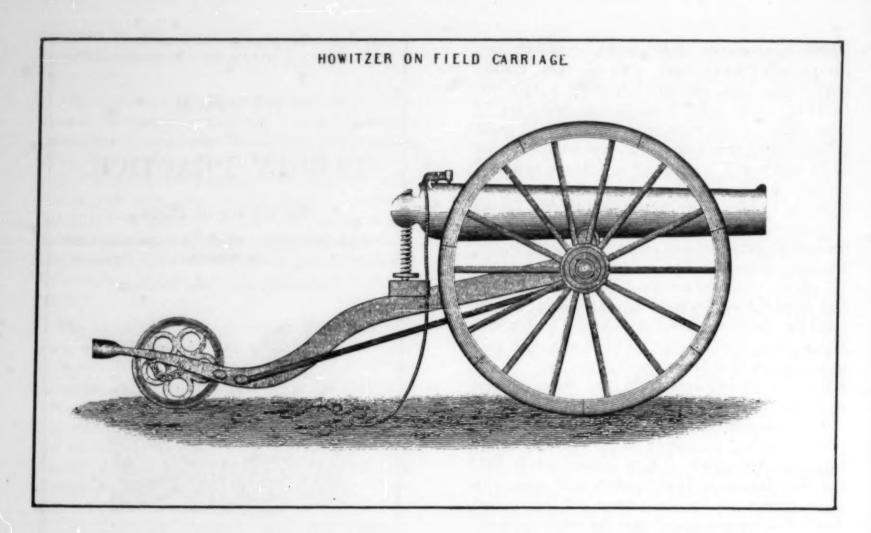
PUBLISHED BY ORDER OF THE WAR DEPARTMENT.

WASHINGTON:
OGVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1862.

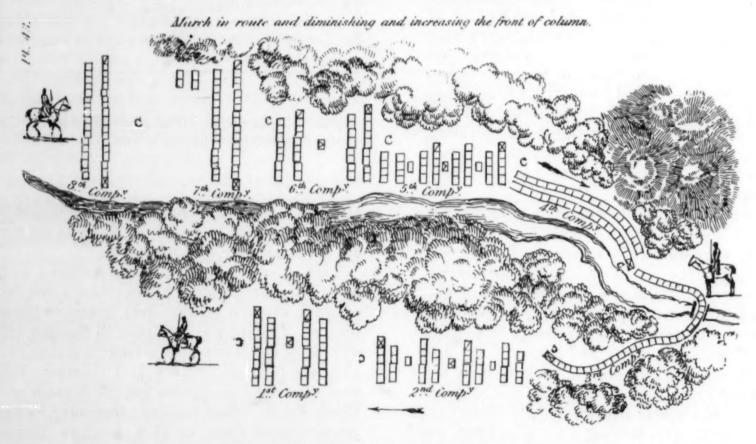
A typical title page from a manual produced by the Government Printing Office during the Civil War.

May 1862, the President indicated he would ask Stanton about the possibility of adopting the manual but apparently with no success.

Tactics for the United States Artillery, as for other branches of service, went back some three decades and can be definitely traced to French sources. A board was convened in October 1826, with Scott as president, to prepare a system of instruction for field artillery. In December of that year the board recommended the *Manual of the Garde Royale*, which had been translated by Lieutenant Daniel Tyler, 1st U. S. Artillery. This was subsequently published. In 1839 another system of French artillery tactics appeared in Captain Rob-



This graceful delineation of a boat howitzer mounted for land service is reproduced from the 1863 edition of Ordnance Instructions for the United States Navy.



The Navy showed early interest in land operations and prepared Exercises in Small Arms and Field Artillery for publication in 1852.

ert Anderson's translation of the French Instruction for Field Artillery, Horse and Foot, adapted to the U. S. service. However, some dissatisfaction arose from American military circles who believed the British system to be superior and the two factions compromised. The result was the manual Instruction for Field Artillery, Horse and Foot, adopted by the War Department, 6 March, 1845. This was followed, 5 December 1850, with the adoption of a system for mountain artillery, and on 10 May 1851 with a system for heavy artillery.

The instructions of 1845 were excellent as far as they went but they included only the manual of the piece and the maneuvers of a battery. Proper organization and management in the field of artillery were almost completely neglected. In 1858, a board of officers convened to correct these deficiencies. The board prepared the manual Instruction for Field Artillery which was adopted by the War Department 6 March, 1860. The appearance of this manual, only a year before the outbreak of war, was extremely fortunate for the Union cause. As is well known, the excellent regular and volunteer batteries of the Federal army made the difference on several critical battles of the war. Certainly some of the credit for their brilliant combat record must go to the excellent training they received, a training based on the 1860 manual.

This new system embodied the instruction of 1845 but went much further; in fact, it exceeded in coverage and completeness of execution any system of tactics which had been prepared up to that time for the artillery arm. So well-written was this manual that the volunteer batteries were enabled to prepare systematically and thoroughly for field service in the least possible time and the most efficient manner. At the same time these new instructions were approved, the War Department adopted a helpful supplement, Evolutions of Field Batteries, translated from the French by Robert Anderson (now promoted to major), and including essentially the maneuvers involved in "School of the Battalion."

The heavy artillery tactics of 1851 included only the manual of the piece, a few maneuvers, and the nomenclature of siege, sea-coast, and garrison artillery. Just enough instruction for dismounted detachments was included to enable the cannoneers to be marched to and from their pieces. The 1862 manual was an improvement in that it called for the maneuvering of detachments as provided for in field artillery units, and also contained material on

the service of rifled guns. Mountain artillery as an independent branch was not used in the war. The 1860 field artillery manual divided artillery personnel into field and foot—the former serving mounted in horse batteries—the latter serving as mountain, rocket, siege, garrison, and sea-coast batteries.

For the student of Naval tactics there is an unexpectedly long list of manuals and books of instructions. In contrast with the Army, there was much less competition between various "systems" but rather one finds more or less definitive and authoritative manuals for specific phases of naval ordnance, ships, tactics, and seamanship. There appears to be little duplication and many of the manuals are written for rather restricted and technical subjects. As a result of the limited scope of these manuals, they were generally rather brief and, for some reason unknown to this author, comparatively hard to find. Perhaps this is due to the relatively small number of men in the Navy during the war, and to the great growing interest of collectors in American naval history. Apparently the Marine Corps used naval manuals appropriate to its service.

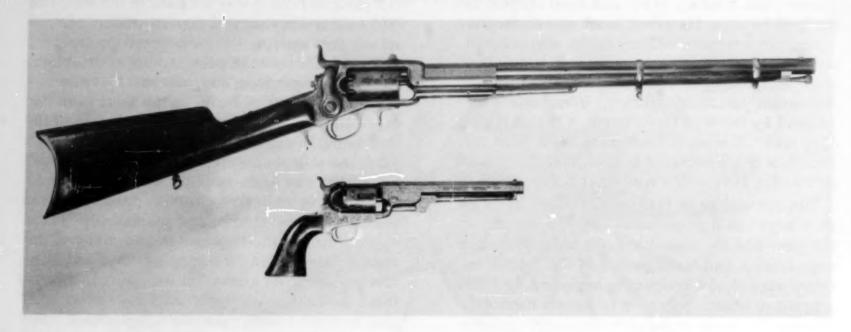
In addition to the military and naval manuals published during the war, there were also used a very great many religious tracts, Bibles (especially pocket Testaments in various languages), and such miscellaneous items as guide books for men on leave, reprints of Hoyle on card playing, and similar works. A representative collection of the books carried by officers and men during the Civil War is much more complete (and interesting!), if one has some examples of these lesser-known types. They were really used!

(To be concluded with a Bibliography)



This frontispiece is a rather unusual embellishment taken from CAMP AND OUTPOST DUTY FOR INFANTRY by Major General Butterfield.

Colt's carbine and .51 caliber Navy pistol presented to Secretary of War John Buchanan Floyd by "Col. Colt's Workmen" now in possession of the author.



SECRETARY FLOYD'S PRESENTATION COLTS

by John S. duMont

Writing to the Honorable J. C. Breckenridge, President of the Senate, 21 February 1859, John Buchanan Floyd, Secretary of War, replied to a resolution of that body requesting "information as to what changes have been proposed in the armament of the United States mounted troops, with a view to economy and increased efficiency of that force on the frontiers; an estimate of the additional expense, if any, and the means provided, or necessary to be provided, for paying same."

Secretary Floyd outlined in detail the reports of the board which he had ordered convened to answer these questions, consisting of Brigadier General W. S. Harney, Lieutenant Colonel Joseph E. Johnston, Major C. A. May, and Lieutenant Colonel W. J. Hardee. Strangely enough, the board, which was made of officers who were soon to play important roles in the Civil War, both North and South, tested only "Colt's pistol carbine" (The 1855 Sidehammer revolving cylinder carbine, sometimes termed a "rifle") and "Colt's pistol with breech attachment" (The 1851 Navy model pistol with detachable shoulder stock).

The report, listed as "Executive Document No. 35, Senate, 35th Congress, 2nd Session," gives the

details of their tests, and in but three days time, the members came to the conclusion that they considered "Colt's pistol carbine and Colt's pistol with breech attachment superior for our cavalry service to any arm which they are acquainted," and went on to recommend their adoption with very minor modifications. The cost for the pistols alone was estimated at \$218,280.

Perhaps stranger still, was the presentation to Secretary Floyd from "Col. Colt's Workmen," sometime previously, of highly engraved specimens of "Colt's pistol carbine" and "Colt's pistol" (Navy model), with an 1848 "Pocket" model added for good measure.

The story of Samuel Colt presenting items of his manufacture where they would do him the most good is too well known to be repeated here, but his largess in the case of the gift to Secretary Floyd was equaled only once before in his lifetime, when a similar presentation set was given in 1857 to Colt's own Vice President and second in command, Inventor E. K. Root.

Colt's care in not being over-presumptuous is noted in the inscription: "Presented to Hon. John B. Floyd, Secretary of War, by the Workmen of Col. Colt's Armory, Hartford, Conn." Not from Col. Colt himself, mind you, but from his "work-men"—and in case you wished to buy, the address was "Col. Colt's Armory, Hartford, Conn."

Modesty personified.

This story could be elaborated on to attempt to prove all manner of skullduggery, but the fact of the matter was that Colt's guns were tested on a basis of value and performance, and it was only a short time afterward that other manufacturers demanded equal chance at this contract, and received their opportunity. That Colt's weapons succeeded in weathering almost all of these tests, and against all comers, is evidence enough of the superiority of the products and the fairness of the selection.

Whatever his means, Colt had guns of excellent workmanship, and what was more important, machinery and men to turn them out in the quantities and within the time required by the military—particularly when the political unrest of the day was taken into consideration.

The presentation set for Secretary Floyd may well have been the cause of a chain-reaction, for Floyd, being a native and ex-Governor of Virginia, followed his State in secession, resigned as Secretary of War in 1860, and was succeeded by Simon Cameron. The presentation Colts went South with Floyd.

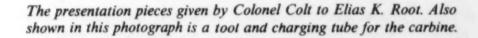
During the Winter of 1860-61, Floyd was generally accused of aiding the Secession cause by designedly sending units of the Army to the extreme ends of the country, and at the same time of forwarding large supplies of arms and ammunition to Southern arsenals. Procesting these and other charges leveled at his integrity, Floyd voluntarily returned to Washington and presented himself before an investigating committee of the House of Representatives in January 1861, insisting on trial.

The investigating committee convened, and after hearings, found Floyd innocent of every charge made against him, whereupon he returned to Virginia and accepted appointment as a brigadier general in the Confederate Army ¹

Colt too, was unjustly accused of selling arms to the South after hostilities had commenced, but this was also proven untrue, although not by Congressional inquiry.²

Floyd's career proved to be short. He met General Rosecrans in the battle at Carnifex Ferry in 1861, and later was severely censured by the Con-

² John E. Parsons, "New Light on Old Colts," Texas Gun Collector, No. 57 (March 1955) 17-24; (May 1955) 17-24.





¹ National Cyclopedia of American Biography, New York, 1907, V, 7; P. G. Auchampaugh, James Buchanan and his Cabinet on the Eve of Seccession, Lancaster, 1926. The Encyclopedia Britannica, American Supplement, New York, 1886, III, 103, gives a rather biased account of Floyd's unfortunate career.

federate Government for fleeing Fort Donelson with part of his command, leaving General Buckner to answer to General Grant's "Unconditional Surrender" terms. Floyd died in 1863 near Abingdon, Virginia, but not so the presentation guns from Colt.³

The Navy pistol was presented by Floyd to Major Peter Otey, a member of his staff, and was so inscribed. Major Otey later served on the staff of General Longstreet; he was generally conceded to have fired the first shot following the secession of Virginia, and completed his colorful career as a member of the United States House of Representatives, after the War.⁴

The 1849 Pocket model of this presentation set was given by Floyd to his brother, George Rogers Clark Floyd, who lived near Logan, West Virginia. The pistol in mention was located among the effects of a descendant of this union in a small mining community nearby.

What was the course of life of the carbine, is not known, but the three original presentation pieces are now together again, after a period of almost 100 years.

From the collector's viewpoint these presentation sets are not only historical, but extremely



The 1849 Colt's "Pocket" pistol presented to Secretary Floyd, given to his brother, and lately obtained from a descendent. Collection of the author.

rare—only the two sets mentioned having come to the attention of the author. The E. K. Root presentation set never left the confines of the Factory, and is now on exhibition in the Colt display at the Connecticut State Library at Hartford. The Floyd set, had, however a history that would be difficult to match, anywhere.

From an original presentation to a Secretary of War, who was significantly involved in the choice and management of weapons of the United States Army—through the War Between the States in various command positions in the Confederate Army—and finally gathered together again as collector's items, these guns are distinctly unique. (Book Rights Reserved)

John S. du Mont

THE SPAR TORPEDO IN THE WAR BETWEEN THE STATES

by John L. Rawls

The CSS Albermarle was torpedoed and sunk in eight feet of water on 27 October 1864 at Plymouth, N. C. by means of a daring attack by a torpedo launch commanded by Lieutenant William B. Cushing, U.S.N. The launch had been armed with an explosive charge secured to a long spar or outrigger and known as a spar torpedo. This attack was successfully carried out by virtue of Cushing's considerable courage and perseverance, generously combined with a great amount of luck

Lieutenant Cushing's gallantry was evidenced

by his actions after repeated set-backs to the point of apparent failure. After approaching his target through a veritable storm of canister and rifle fire delivered from all sides and in as much concentration as could be brought to bear on his small vessel, he learned for the first time that the Confederate ironclad was protected by an encircling boom of large cyprus logs. On seeing this obstruction he turned back into midstream, came about, and drove full speed at the boom. His craft had a sled-type bottom at her bow that enabled it to slowly slide up onto the water-logged boom and,

^a Tyler's Quarterly, V (1923).

¹57th Congress, 1st Session, H.R. Document 714, Memorial Address on . . . Peter J. Otey, Washington, 1902.

due to the momentum he had attained, slide over to the other side. He immediately lowered the torpedo boom, floated the charge up against the Albemarle's bottom by use of a "detaching line" and pulled the lanyard.

At this point, his uncanny luck came to the fore. He had lowered the torpedo directly below a gun port. The gun on the ironclad, said to be a huge 100-pounder, was already loaded with grape, run out and ready to fire. At almost the same moment the ironclad's gun was fired, the torpedo exploded. It was thus only due to the force of the underwater explosion that the full charge of the Albemarle's gun did not blast Cushing's small craft and its crew out of existence. As it was, the blast went over their heads and the rising wave from the torpedo's explosion filled and sank the torpedo boat. Lieutenant Cushing's luck still held, and by exhaustive swimming in the darkness, he was able to escape by reaching the shore below the anchorage.

He made his full escape by locating a small pulling boat nearby and rowing out to a Union vessel. Of the fourteen officers and men under his command, Lieutenant Cushing and one other escaped, two were killed, and the remaining ten captured.

Just a few months before Lieutenant Cushing's success, the Confederate torpedo boat Squib had attacked the USS Minnesota at 2 a.m. on 9 April 1864, while the Union frigate was at anchor off Newport News, Va. and caused extensive damage, which nearly resulted in the Minnesota's total loss.²

These torpedoes, or explosive charges, were the forerunners of the modern torpedo in that they were carried to the target. The more common stationary mine-types of those by-gone days were also known as "torpedoes." The spar types were the result of many attempts to utilize underwater explosives to destroy enemy vessels. Such attempts had been made as far back as explosives were known and an almost successful attempt was made during our own American Revolution by a one-man underwater craft known as the *Turtle*.

This submarine actually proceeded underwater

and attacked a British vessel by attempting to attach a torpedo to the vessel's bottom. The operator of the submarine, thinking the wood screw which was to attach the "torpedo" to the warship's bottom, was being held back by a layer or obstruction of metal and would not fasten properly, attempted to move to another location. He lost the vessel (HMS Eagle), however, and was not able to locate her again under water. He proceeded some distance from the Eagle and rose to the surface. Noting that darkness was approaching, he decided not to renew the attempt. Two further attacks by the Turtle proved fruitless and finally the submarine was lost while on board a vessel pursued and sunk in the Hudson River by British Naval forces. This brave seaman was actually a volunteer sergeant named Ezra Lee, who oddly enough was rewarded for his exploit, not by the Navy, but by the Army. He was commissioned a lieutenant in the First Connecticut Regiment to rank from June 1778.3

Other submarines, known as Confederate "Davids" were also forerunners of the modern submarines and torpedoes, and were used by the Southerners in Charleston, S. C. harbor. However, only one success in five attempts, plus the almost complete loss of the several crews assigned, resulted in the Confederates turning their attention to the use of ordinary ship's boats as a means of carrying a torpedo to its target.

After many tests and experiments the results as regards ship's boats carrying the torpedoes on out-riggers, or spars to be pushed out and fired in close proximity to a vessel's hull, were most satisfactory. Several steam launches were adopted for service in this way by both Confederates and Federals. Their general arrangements consisted of one or more long spars, to the extremities of each of which a torpedo was attached and carried in such a way as to be readily pushed out from the bow of the boat immediately before the absolute moment of attack.

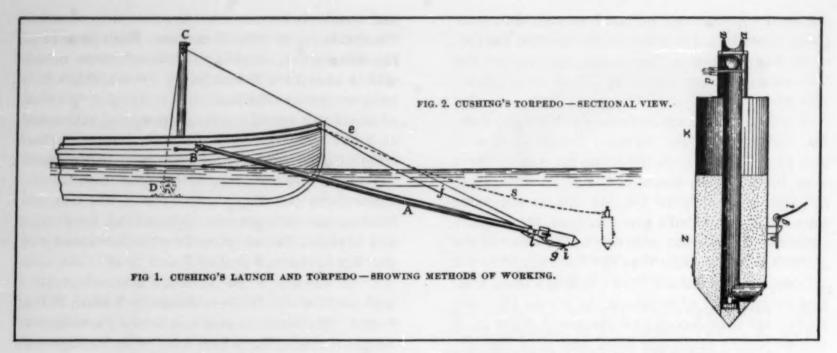
The boat in which Lieutenant Cushing performed his successful attack was an ordinary man-

John R. Spears, The History of Our Navy, New York, 1897, IV, 457-463.

² Major R. H. Stotherd, RE, Submarine Mines, Washington, 1872. (Reprint of a publication of the School of Military Engineering, Chatham, England).

³ Spears, op. cit., I, 165-174.

^{&#}x27;The Confederate Navy made history in these dangerous attacks, since one Confederate "David," a coal burner with a 65 lb. "torpedo," attacked and severely damaged the USS New Ironsides and thus became the first to torpedo an enemy vessel. Another "David" attacked and sank the USS Husatonic and was the first to actually sink a hostile warship. Ibid., IV, 497-50.



Cushing's Torpedo, reproduced from BATTLES AND LEADERS OF THE CIVIL WAR, 1888 edition.

Most spar torpedoes were ignited by direct percussion against the target.

of-war's steam launch, that had been rigged and fitted out in New York. This launch, together with another that was wrecked en route, was brought down to Norfolk for Lieutenant Cushing's specific use.⁵

The spar torpedo illustrated in Figure 1 shows the exact manner in which the one used by Lieutenant Cushing was fitted out, but rigs were not very standard and most carried the charge on the boom directly to the target rather than detaching it to float upward to it. The explosive charges also varied. The amount specified for a small boat was 50 lbs. of "fine" powder. This charge was lowered to a depth of nine feet on the outrigged spar and was fired against a vessel's hull with perfect safety to the small boat's crew when lowered to that depth.

When larger boats, such as the steam launches, were torpedo rigged, the explosive charge was greater (usually 100-150 lbs.) and was lowered via the spar or boom to a depth of at least 10 feet before firing. The fact that Cushing was forced to fire his torpedo close to the surface in shallow water undoubtedly caused the swamping of his craft.

The manner in which the charge was actually detonated was either by a self-acting mechanical

fuse or plunger-type hammer device that fired on contact, or by means of a long line or lanyard led from the firing mechanism to the bow of the boat. This latter method was the one used by Lieutenant Cushing. It was quite crude in requiring dependence on a "detaching line" and a careful touch and timing on the part of the person whose duty it was to fire while fully exposed to enemy fire. The See Figure 2.

Neatly summed up in the November, 1947 issue of the "Journal of the R. N. Scientific Service" are these facts as to the score of the combatants:

"The Confederacy pioneered with mines and torpedoes, attaining a degree of success therewith which was not to be approached again for many years. In the sort of Naval Operations imposed by the existing conditions, the U. S. Navy was definitely on the receiving end as regards torpedoes, and although torpedoes and mines were used against the South when opportunity offered, the one success of the Union Navy (Lt. Cushing) in the destruction of the ironclad CSS Albemarle by spar torpedo, was not spectacular when compared with the 23 Federal ships sunk and 7 severely damaged by Confederate "torpedoes." 8

Stotherd, op. cit., 276.

[&]quot; Ibid., 278-279.

⁷ Ibid., 276; see also The Century Co., Battles and Leaders of the Civil War, New York, 189, IV, 636.

⁸ U. S. Navy BuOrd pamphlet, DPPO-PRNC, John M. Stockard, USN. Origin and Evolution of the Torpedo, Washington.

THE PLATES

THE LAKE SUPERIOR REGIMENT (MOTOR), CANADIAN ARMY, 1945

(Plate No. 137)

The figures in this print of our fellow North Americans in World War II represent the use of various combinations of the uniform, for quick identification of sub-units during battle.

All are soldiers of "A" Company, The Lake Superior Regiment (Motor), armed, equipped, and dressed for a daylight raid across the Maas River, The Netherlands, at 1230 hours, 17 January 1945. No. 1, No. 2, and No. 3 Platoons took part, each having a different role in the operation, each uniformed and armed distinctively for the role.

No. 1 Platoon made the initial river crossing, seized and held a bridgehead on the snow-covered foreshore. The men wore snowsuits and were armed with Bren Guns. The officer leading No. 1 Platoon (central figure) has let his white hood fall back, revealing the woolen scarf/toque. The .38 Smith & Wesson revolver is the officer's personal weapon, which he has supplemented with pockets full of grenades and a #4 Mark 1 rifle. At this time the revolvers, either Smith & Wesson or Webley, were being called in and 9mm Canadian-manufactured Browning Automatics issued.

The figure on the right, wearing battle dress and khaki beret, is a private of No. 2 Platoon, lightly dressed and lightly armed for the assault over the dike and the seizing of a firm base on the edge of the town of Hoenzedril, the objective of the raid. He is armed with a Bren Gun, though half of this Platoon carried rifle and bayonet. He also carries a small pack filled with fragmentation grenades.

The Company commander, with his headquarters and signals and artillery communications, wore the dress of the No. 2 Platoon, from whose position the raid was to be directed.

No. 3 Platoon was given the job of getting into the town of Hoenzedril, seizing prisoners, and being as disagreeable as possible. For this role they were armed with P.I.A.T.s (Projector, Infantry, Anti-Tank), Flame-throwers, Phosphorus and Fragmentation Grenades, and—as a personal weapon—a Sten Gun. The kneeling figure on the left is a P.I.A.T. man, as is the Cree Indian who is coming up with more bombs. They wear tin hats, netted; the nets garnished with brown and green strips of camouflage cloth. They are also wearing felt-lined leather vests, as protective armour against flying rubble, as well as for quick identification of this group.

All distinguishing marks of rank, regiment, and division were removed for this raid. The "Canada" patch, however, was never taken down. As this was a river crossing, everyone wore a deflated Mae West (not shown in the print) over their clothes but under their webb equipment, and all carried in an outside pocket a Gem-type razor-blade or a sharp clasp-knife, open, for quick escape from weighty gear should a reconnaissance boat capsize or sink.

Battle-dress trousers were made with a special pocket on the right thigh for the first field dressing. These dressings generally were found to be too small to cover a wound. All ranks, therefore, were issued khaki-covered "shell dressings," approximately 7 x 3 x 2 inches, which were carried under the helmet-net or tied under the left shoulder-strap.

Though this operation was planned for lunch time, no one carried the inevitable brown enamel half-pint tea-mug, secured to a waist-strap, nor were water-bottles carried. Shortly before H-Hour there had been a rum issue!

In this print, the Regimental Badge of the "L. S. R." is shown against the green background of the 4th Armoured Division patch. The "Lake

The uniforms and equipment shown are taken from the author's personal knowledge and collection, checked against the holdings of the Imperial War Museum, London. Details of the action are given in the official history of the 4th Armoured Brigade. Examples of the arms depicted were examined in the Fort Sill and West Point Museums and are shown in W. H. B. Smith Small Arms of the World, Harrisburg, Pa., 1956 ed.

Soups" were the Motor Battalion of the 4th Armoured Brigade, 4th Armoured Division.

Today the "L. S. R." has returned to its armory at Port Arthur, Ontario where, as the militia regiment of the lakehead area, it carries on the tradition and honours of the Algoma Rifles of the Riel Rebellion and the 52nd Battalion of World War I. The regiment, because of the recruiting value of the kilt, has become Scottish, and now is correctly

designated "The Lake Superior Regiment (Scottish) (Motor)." As such, wearing a new badge and kilts of the Macgillivray tartan, it is the subject of a print in the excellent O'Keefe Brewery Series, "Tradition Counts." Each year the regiment exchanges social visits with its neighboring National Guard Unit south of the border in Duluth, Minnesota.

Frederick T. Chapman Captain Harrison K. Bird, Jr., M. C.

CITADEL CADET BATTERY, MORRIS ISLAND, 1861

(Plate No. 138)

The first shot fired by southern state troops in the Civil War issued from the mouth of a smooth-bore 24-pounder emplaced in a hastily-constructed, sand-bagged battery at Cummings Point, Morris Island, in Charleston harbor. The gunner was a cadet of The Citadel and the target was the Star of the West, a steamer attempting to reach Major Anderson's embattled garrison at Fort Sumter with rations, munitions, and reinforcements.

South Carolina authorities regarded Anderson's act of spiking the guns of Fort Moultrie and withdrawing to Sumter as little short of an act of war. Steps were taken immediately to ring Sumter with Carolina-manned cannon while Morris Island at the harbor entrance was selected for fortification to prevent federal aid from reaching Anderson and his men. The tedious work of filling sand bags and building gun platforms at Cummings Point began on 1 January 1861; at daybreak on the 9th a four-gun battery of 24-pounders was ready to take on the approaching Star of the West. The Citadel Cadets were manning the guns as they were more familiar with artillery drill than the men of the other militia units that formed the battery's garrison.

An eye-witness account of what occurred when the federal relief ship approached is of interest:

Cadet W. S. Simkins, on post on the Battery, gave the alarm, the sentinels along the beach took up the call, the long roll was sounded, and the men immediately took their positions, the Citadel Cadets at the guns, the Zouave Cadets and German Riflemen just in their rear as an infantry support.

The Ship was soon inside the channel and rapidly approaching. The guns were loaded, the lanyards stretched, the men awaiting orders. There seemed to be some hesitation among the higher officers, the commanding officer, evidently impressed with the seriousness of firing on the United States flag, appeared to be in doubt just what to do.

Major P. F. Stevens, commanding the Cadets, turned and gave the command: "Comence Firing." The cadet captain passed the order: "Number One Fire." Cadet G. E. Haynesworth of Sumter, pulled the lanyard and fired the first gun of the War, the shot going across the Star of the West.

Cadet S. P. Pickens fired the second shot, directly at her, and the firing then became general, each gun in turn. The vessel paid no attention to the first shots; then slowed down; turned, and put out to sea.¹

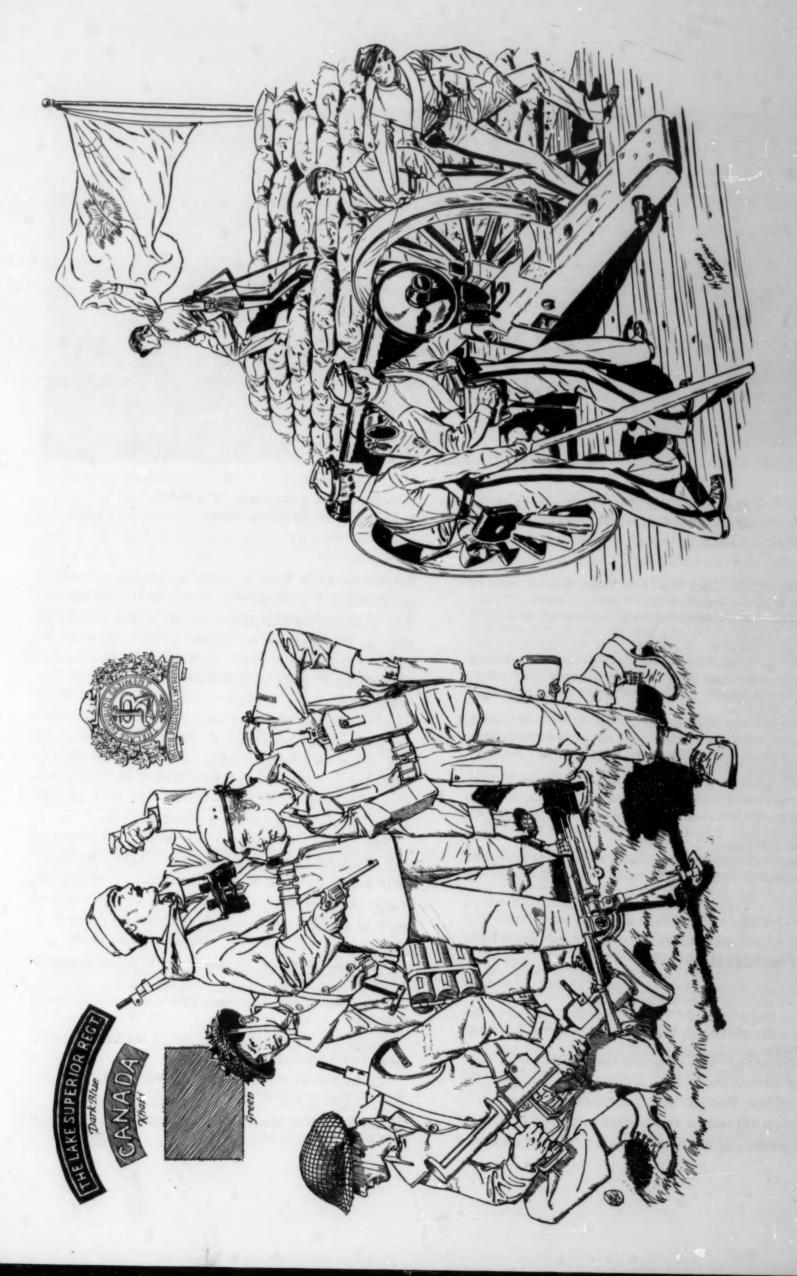
Our plate shows the Number One gun at the moment of firing with Major Stevens on the sand-bag ramparts and "a red palmetto flag flying" as noted by Captain McGown of the Star of the West.² The gun is a standard 24-pounder of the day, set on field carriage, with the travelling block characteristic of the piece showing plainly on the trail.³

The uniforms worn are those provided for in the 1843 Citadel regulations still current for faculty and cadets. Major Stevens' outfit is covered as follows in pertinent exerpts:

¹ Sergeant S. E. Welch, Zouave Cadets, quoted in Colonel O. J. Bond, *The Story of The Citadel*, Richmond, 1936, 49-50. The historical outline of the action has been taken from Bond's history.

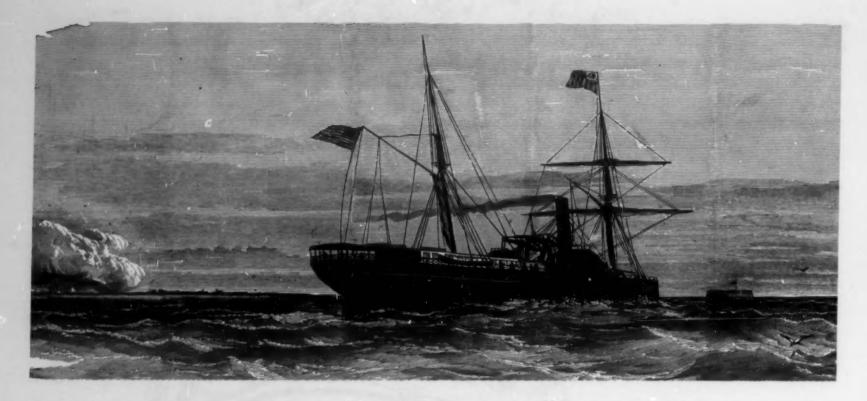
² Quoted in Ibid., 50.

^a Most standard artillery manuals of the period carry profiles of the gun. Several good pictures showing the details of construction appear in David Donald, ed., *Divided We Fought*, New York, 1952, 29, 221, 279.



The Lake Superior Regiment (Motor) Canadian Army, 1945

Citadel Cadet Battery, Morris Island, January 9, 1861



The "Star of the West" fired upon by the batteries on Morris Island, a contemporary woodcut as reproduced in an abridged edition of Bradley's The Soldier In Our Civil War.

Frock Coat—Dark blue cloth, single breasted, with 10 large Palmetto buttons down the front, at equal distances, and two small Palmetto buttons at the fastening of the cuff; plain stand up collar; two large buttons at each pocket in the skirt, one of which at the hip, and the other at the bottom of the folds of the pockets, making four buttons behind. Lining of the Coat, black. Shoulder straps of black velvet, one inch in breadth, bordered with an embroidery of gold 1/8 of an inch wide . . .

Trousers—From 1st October to 30th April, sky blue cloth, to come well down over the boots, and made perfectly plain, except for a black velvet stripe down the outer seam, 1½ inches wide, and welted at the edges . . .

Forage Cap—Of black cloth, with black patent leather visor, encircled with a band of leather, 1½ inches wide, with gold embroidered edges, ¼ of an inch wide, with cross cannon and shell in front, encircled with a double wreath of palm and laurel . . .

Sash—Crimson silk net, with silk bullion ends, to go twice around the waist, and to be tied on the left hip, the pendent part to be uniformly worn one foot in length from the tie...

Sword—As the Artillery Sword of the U. S. Army . . . Sword Knot—Crimson and gold, with bullion tassel.

The cadet gun crew is uniformed in fatigue dress 5 which called for:

down the outer seam, one inch wide.

... fatigue jacket for winter, of grey [Sattinet], with standing collar, plain single breasted, with one row of 9 Palmetto buttons.

Forage Cap—Blue cloth, with black patent leather visor. The momentous few minutes of firing on the Star of the West is commemorated in a battle streamer affixed to the present college colors of The Citadel. The streamer is one of nine awarded

by the State of South Carolina to the school to commemorate its service in the Confederate forces. The memory of the January 9th incident is kept alive at The Citadel by means of an annual competitive drill during graduation week to choose the best drilled cadet in the Corps. The Star of the West Medal is awarded to that cadet to wear until the following year (miniatures are awarded for permanent possession). Judged by officers of the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps stationed in Charleston, but not at The Citadel, the competition lasts for hours without break, with cadets being eliminated after each series of drills.

The medal is of gold with a wooden star affixed to the obverse, the wood from the Star of the West.

The name of each winner is engraved on the reverse. First awarded in 1893, the competition is now in its 65th year.

H. Charles McBarron, Jr. Major Charles West

[&]quot;Uniforms of Officers," Regulations of The Citadel Academy at Charleston..., 1843.

⁵ "Clothing," Cadet Regulations of The Citadel Academy at Charleston..., 1843.

⁶ See MC&H, VI, 71, 73 and Plate No. 91, MUIA for details of the dress and full dress uniforms.

⁷ General Order No. 3, 26 October 1942, Adjutant General, State of South Carolina.

EDITOR'S NOTE: Major West won the Star of the West Medal as a Citadel cadet in 1943.

DE MEURON'S SWISS REGIMENT, 1814-1816

(Plate No. 139)

In 1781 the French authorities helped raise a new regiment in the Swiss cantons for service with the Dutch East India Company. The command was given to the Comte de Meuron who at that time was serving in the Swiss Regiment d'Erlach of the French Army. The new organization was at first to be clothed in red with pale blue facings, but this scheme was changed to blue faced orange to avoid its being mistaken for a British unit.¹

Soon after its formation the regiment was "borrowed" from the Dutch by the French and did duty as marines on board a French fleet operating against the British. Later, de Meuron's served at the Cape of Good Hope and in Ceylon where it again fought against the British. However, in 1795, following the custom of the times the regiment switched over to British service when Holland surrendered Ceylon. Its new uniform was the originally-proposed pattern—red faced pale blue. The officers on active service wore blue silk sashes with orange fringers, but how long they continued to do so is not known. In the absence of information to the contrary we have shown this detail on the plate for a later period.

A capitulation of service drawn up in 1798 gives some interesting details of its colors: The King's Colour—"the Union:" the Regimental Colour "to be the Swiss Colours" with the Union in the first canton. The report on the second color of 23 May 1814 states that "the Colours after 18 years service were not according to regulation. The yellow cross which separated the field ought to have been blue." (It, however, continued to be yellow as before). It will be noted that the Cross of St. Patrick is absent, not having been added on the union with Ireland.

The regiment served with distinction in the various campaigns in India and took part in the storming of Seringapatam. Wellington reported that it was not surpassed by the British regiments in good conduct, discipline, or other military qualities. De Meuron's left India in 1806 in greatly reduced strength because of men being invalided out or finishing their term of service; a number also transferred to the East India Company's regiments. Owing to this reduced strength, the regiment was assigned primarily to garrison duties in the Mediterranean until 1814 when it was sent from Malta to help in the defense of Canada.

During the period of this Canadian service shown in our plate the regiment's uniform was similar to that worn by British line regiments. Charles de Bosset (A View of the British Army on the Present Establishment, 1803) and Hamilton Smith (Costume of the Army of the British Empire, 1815) both show the men with bastion-shaped lace with one red line. The dress of the officers, as shown in their miniatures, has several minor variations, some having plain collar and lapels, while others have silver laced buttonholes in twos, and the collar edged with the same lace besides having a silver loop and button. The epaulettes were silver, but the gorget and belt plate were gilt, the last having the crown and GR cypher and the inscription "De Meuron Swiss Regiment"; this same device appeared on the helmet plate.

The most unusual item of de Meuron's uniform was the dress of the band of music and the fifes and drums who were allowed to wear the livery of de Meuron. The custom of wearing the colonel's livery had been forbidden in the regular British service since 1742. Hoffman's original sketches of the regiment show this livery in full detail; it was green faced with black and bound with a yellow, black, and green lace. When the British infantry adopted the short jacket, the livery must have been altered as shown to suit the new regulations while

In America the regiment formed part of Prevost's mismanaged attack on Plattsburg, where its chasseur company under Captain Mathey covered the British retreat. After the peace the unit served in Lord Selkirk's Red River Expedition. De Meuron's was disbanded in July 1816 and many of its men settled in Canada.

A regimental history, Essai historique sur le Regiment suisse de Meuron..., was privately published by de Meuron's grand nephew at Neuchâtel in 1885 and brief historical notes occur in several sources, including: C. T. Atkinson, "Foreign Regiments in the British Army 1793-1802, Part VI," Journal of the Society for Army Historical Research, v. 22 (1943-44), 265-266; and an article by Lt. Col. F. N. H. Davidson, in great part abridging information in the Cleghorn Papers, in Army Quarterly, October 1936, 58-72. Additional sources of information are the relevant volumes of the War Office records, Public Record Office, especially WO XXV, v. 677 & 678 and the comemporary artists mentioned in the text.

BOSTON TROOP OF LIGHT DRAGOONS, 1802-c. 1810

(Plate No. 140)

In the Old State House, in Boston, there hangs a printed and hand colored order for parade. In the foreground of the embellished form is depicted a trumpeter of horse wearing a scarlet coat and breeches, light blue facings, and a bearskin crested helmet. A small group of mounted cavalrymen are shown in the background. The document orders a member of the Boston Troop of Light Dragoons to appear for parade on 24 June 1802. "To Horse! To Horse!" This is printed on the form.

This must have been the summons for the Troop's first parade. Massachusetts general orders of 9 June 1802 had authorized Major General Elliott, commanding the 1st Brigade, to raise two troops of cavalry for the Legionary Brigade, then the elite Volunteer Militia corps of Boston and Chelsea. Officers were elected on June 12th and the Boston Light Dragoons was organized soon thereafter. Apparently the second company was never established.¹

The troop's first commander was Henry Purkitt, by trade a cooper, who had served as a sergeant in Sheldon's 2nd Continental Light Dragoons during the Revolution.² The unit prospered, at least to

MS "Outline Sketches of the History of Old Massachusetts

Militia Organizations," by Fred W. Cross, in War Records Sec-

tion, AGO of Massachusetts, State House, Boston.

the extent of continuing to have its printed parade orders hand colored, for a second one, dated 20 June 1807, is in the American Antiquarian Society at Worcester. After the disbandment of the Boston Hussars in 1818,³ it was the only troop of cavalry in the Boston area.

Information about the troop is meager indeed. No history of it was ever written and a survey of Boston newspapers and Commonwealth militia registers will be necessary before we can learn about its members, when and where it drilled, and the like. We last hear of the Dragoons in 1833 when the Troop was disbanded for being "reduced in numbers to less than 20 men"—a victim of fading interest and depleted ranks. For three years the city was without cavalry, for the National Lancers—still in existence as the 180th Field Artillery—was not formed until November 1836.

The style of uniform shown in the plate could easily have survived until 1810. The original print gives no clue to the details of the trumpet banner or the standard although it shows both. We know the Troop's motto was "National Honor or Death," for it is on the print; it probably appeared on the standard with the arms of Massachusetts. The monogram shown on the trumpet banner is sheer invention, yet the practice of using monogram was fairly common among the Volunteers of those days and it seems a reasonable assumption.

H. Charles McBarron, Jr. Frederick P. Todd

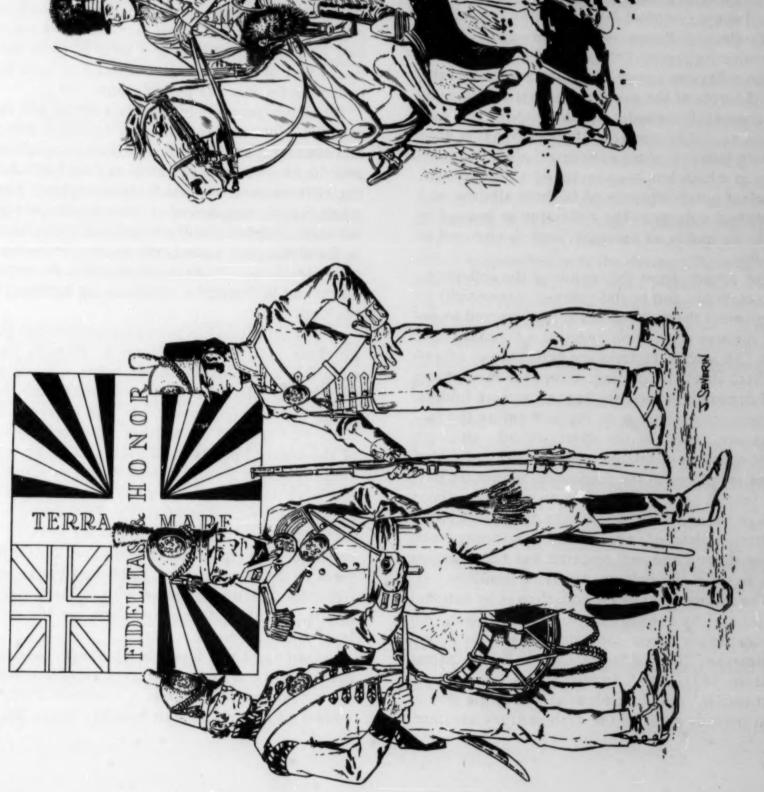
AG, Massachusetts, GO, 19 October 1833.



Cavalry Saber Exercise as shown in an unsigned American military print of the period.

² Zacheriah G. Whitman, An Historical Sketch of the Ancient and Honorable Artillery Company..., Boston, 1820, 99. Purkitt's name is spelled six different ways in Massachusetts war records, but is seems clear that this Henry Purkitt served from 1776 to the end of 1780 at least. He transferred to Sheldon's Horse in May 1777. See Massachusetts Soldiers and Sailors of The Revolutionary War, 17 vols., Boston, 1896-1908, XII, passim. I can find no evidence that he served in Pulaski's Legion, as stated by Whitman.

³ See "Military Uniforms in America," Plate 12.





Boston Troop of Light Dragoons, 1802-1810

DeMeuron's Swiss Regiment, 1814-1816

COLLECTOR'S FIELD BOOK

THE ANATOMY OF MILITARY COLLECTING

FREDERICK P. TODD COLLECTION

My personal collection is essentially a highly organized body of graphic research materials on military dress, weapons, accouterments, insignia, and panoply in general. I say "highly organized" since I seem to spend far more time organizing than collecting. Begun over 30 years ago, it began to assume its present form about 1940.

The collection covers the uniforms, etc., of the armed forces of the world from classical times to the present. It includes no physical objects and makes no use of miniature figures. What it does contain falls into three categories: albums of pictures in which has been included a limited text, looseleaf notebooks related to these albums, and published volumes. The collection is housed in my home and is, of necessity, kept as compact as possible.

The albums form the corpus of the collection; the notebooks and bound volumes serve chiefly to supplement them. Albums are rigid-backed looseleaf binders containing pages of a standard size, 12 x 13% inches. Pictures are permanently affixed to these sheets by pasting, except for rarer prints and drawings, which are kept in acetate folders. Comments explaining or supplementing the pictures are added to the sheets in ink, although large amounts of textual material and undigested notes are placed in the notebooks. Within the past ten years I have succeeded in so mounting about 95% of the considerable quantity of pictures in the collection; detailed annotation is progressing much more slowly, and real research has been carried out, in the main, only on American uniforms.

The arrangement of the collection is by national states and by convenient periods of history. An album usually covers one state for a specific period of time: i.e., "United States, 1784-1820," or "Great Britain, 1881-1914." Smaller states, like "Hesse-Darmstadt," may be embraced in a single album, and periods prior to the 17th century are cate-

gorized by broad geographic areas such as "Europe," "Central Asia," or the "Classic World." Frequently a period demands more than one album; my pictures of the United States Army, 1851-1872, for example, are filed in six 2-inch (100-page) binders. The full "album" for this period, therefore, contains approximately 600 album pages; to this must be added over 1000 note pages, and a miscellany of books. A total of some nine linear feet of shelf space is required to hold the collection for this one period alone.

Effort has been made to document all graphic material. Not only are individual drawings, prints, and photographs identified as to their source, date, and the like, but each album is prefaced by a listing of sources from which pictures have been taken. This listing describes, among other things, the various series of military uniform prints found in the album, and records the prints missing from an incomplete set. In addition, extensive documentation and bibliographic reference can be found in the note files.

The collection has been amassed through gift, purchase, and personal research. Pictures vary from rare and valuable colored prints and original sketches to relatively inexpensive magazine clippings, photographs, post cards, and dress regulations. Perhaps half the pictures are in color. Most of the colored prints have been picked up individually rather than as complete sets or series; if sets have been completed it has been done over a considerable period of years. The 180 albums contain today over 15,000 pages, and are growing all the time. This represents an estimated 23,000 pictures in the albums alone. Published books total 830 titles directly concerned with military history and most with uniforms, and there are 190 looseleaf binders of notes.

Albums and note files, when possible, have been broken down to regimental level. Needless to say, such refinement demands a constant study of orders of battle and unit history. There are, in addition, general sections and appendices. A glance at the breakdown of the British Army, 1881-1914, will give a better understanding of album arrangement:

- Title page, lists of picture series, table of contents, and acknowledgements
- 2. Army as a whole
- 3. Command and staff
- 4. Household Cavalry a. 1st Life Guards
 - b. 2nd Life Guards
 - c. Royal Horse Guards (The Blues)
- Cavalry of the Line
 a. 1st Dragoon Guards . . .
 [and so forth through the line of the army]
- 10. Service corps and branches; schools
- 11. Royal Body Guards, Royal Military Hospital, etc.
- 12. Militia
- 13. Yeomanry cavalry
- 14. Volunteers
- Colonial corps (except South Africa, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, which are filed in separate albums):
 a. East Africa
 - b. West Africa . . . etc.
- Appendices on colors, medals and decorations, weapons, etc.

Research collections of this sort are not uncommon. They are usually the product of limited funds and a semi-professional attitude toward collecting. They represent a desire to maintain materials in the most accessible condition possible; interest centers on information rather than esthetics or iconography, although one should never lose sight of these last qualities.

It was just this sort of collection—world wide in scope—that the late Richard Knoetel maintained and from which he fabricated his monumental Uniformenkunde. Commandant E.-L. Bucquoy, in Breviaire du collectionneur d'uniformes, described his system of arrangement as being along the same lines, although his collection covered only French uniforms. The pictures and research notes assembled on British military dress by the late Rev. Percy Sumner—now owned by Member Anne Brown—are quite similarly mounted and arranged.

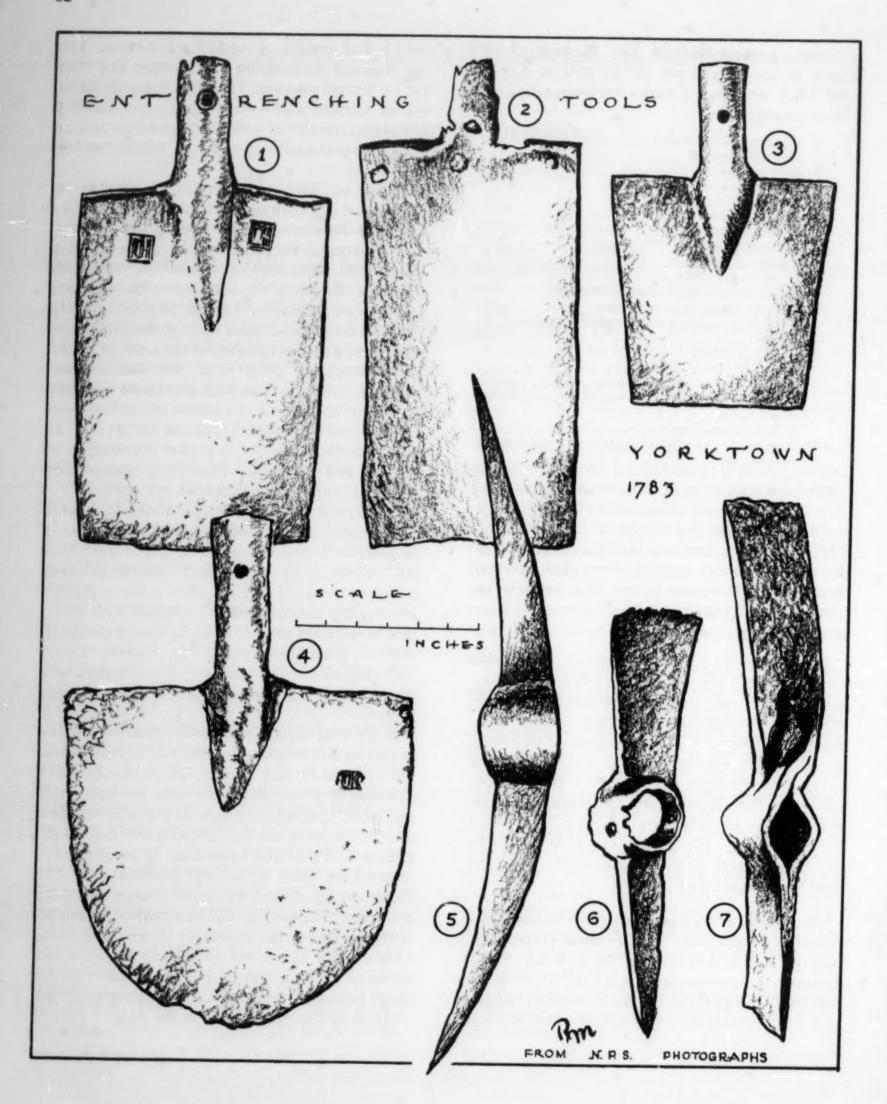
One noteworthy example in this country of a research collection of military dress is the Vinkhuijzen Collection in the New York Public Library. It is noteworthy not only for its scope and its 32,236 pictures, but for its almost complete lack of documentation and its unfortunate use of

poor grade, small-size board for mounting. This size required the compiler to close crop and often cut up the prints used. This unnecessarily harsh use of scissors has brought great and justified criticism from print collectors and has cast an aura of reprehensibility over the album method as a whole.

I have not hesitated to break up print series covering more than one period or country, like Uniformenkunde or Military Uniforms in America, and to rearrange the plates in appropriate places in the albums. This physical separation represents the basic difference between a research collection and a print collection. The physical integrity of the print series is sacrificed (though not lost record of) for the physical integrity of the order of battle. Such spoiling of print series and books must, however, be carried out with great care and only after careful study, and caution should be used not to injure the prints themselves. "Clipping," as such, is as great an error in picture collecting as in football, and should be confined to magazines and relatively common and inexpensive books.

A final word about mounting materials. I use a supple but strong paper for the albums, a 22-pounds "ledger," at least 50 percent rag. This I buy in white, light blue, and sometimes other colors, prepunched to fit the albums. These albums are sturdily constructed and covered with buckram of different shades. Pictures can be pasted in with any good library paste; I use Carter's "Cico." The albums vary in thickness from ½ inch to 2 inches, the pages being retained by lightweight posts

In the final analysis a research collection must be evaluated not so much by its size or intrinsic value but by its usefulness. This usefulness should not be confined to its compiler. It has been possible, more and more, to make the materials available to others and this lending has brought valuable help in exchange and practical experience in arrangement, annotation, and mounting. Members of THE COMPANY are always welcome to make use of the collection. The most satisfactory method, of course, is the personal visit, especially if arranged in advance. When this is not possible appropriate sections of an album and note file can be lent for short periods. Numerous members have taken advantage of this opportunity in the past.



ENTRENCHING TOOLS OF THE CONTINENTAL ARMY

One of the most difficult areas of study for any military campaign of more than a century ago is that which deals with the camp equipment, engineering tools, cooking utensils, and other aspects of everyday camp life. Usually little specific data is recorded in the contemporary documents, and few collectors have devoted their attention to gathering and classifying such objects in past years. For that reason the horde of tools excavated at Yorktown by the National Park Service offer much information of value concerning these items as actually used during the Revolution.

Most of the tools were found by the archeologists in the ditch of Redoubt Number 9, a British outer work which was captured by the Allies and converted into a portion of the second siege line. At the close of the siege, General Washington ordered all of these works levelled by the Allied Armies, and in the course of this work many soldiers apparently discarded their tools, burying them in the trench where they have remained ever since. A few tools were found scattered in other areas of the battlefield, but the group in the trench itself is the find of greatest importance because the circumstances of their burial and discovery permit them to be dated positively.

In all, three types of spade, one kind of shovel, one variety of pick, and two different sorts of mattocks were found. Most of them seemed to be of European manufacture; many bore marks either of maker or inspector, and some were definitely French Army equipment.

The most common type of spade had a blade 8 inches wide and 11% inches long with a widened flange at the top to support the foot and a socket pierced with one hole for a rivet through the handle (Figure 1). Many of these spades bore large rectangular marker's marks with unidentifiable initials on the blades. The second form of spade was a much older variety of a kind often found in seventeenth century sites. It had a blade 7% inches wide and 13½ inches long of two-piece construction designed as a shell around a wooden core. The iron pieces were welded at the bottom and riveted through the wooden core at the top (Figure 2). Some of these were stamped with a large incised G near the handle and may well have been of American manufacture. The third type of spade had an unusually modern appearance with

a short wide blade 7½ inches wide and 7¾ inches long. There was no flange at the top, and no mark was found on the single specimen of this kind which was recovered (Figure 3).

The shovels all seemed to follow one pattern which was both wider and flatter as well as rounder at the point than modern shovels (Figure 4). These shovels closely resemble those illustrated in Suirery de Saint Remy, *Memoires d'Artillerie* (various editions between 1697 and 1745), and since many of them bear still discernible French proof marks in addition to makers' marks, it may be assumed that they were standard French Army equipment. The usual specimen had a blade 11½ inches wide and 11 inches long.

The picks were all of one pattern and closely resembled modern picks in all details (Figure 5). Again, many bore French proof marks, though some were completely unmarked. The average specimen measured 23½ inches in a straight line from point to point.

One of the types of pickaxe or mattock had a sharp point at one end and a broad blade at the other (Figure 6). This type closely follows an illustration in Saint Remy and again may be assumed French. The socket in addition to being tapered bears a pair of holes for a transverse rivet. The average specimen was 14¼ inches long. The second form of mattock had two broad blades with their axes at right angles and a definite "twist" line from the forging (Figure 7). The eyes for the handles were also often diamond-shaped rather than elliptical as is the case with modern tools. The average length of these was 18 inches. No marks were noted in the preliminary examinations.

A representative selection of these tools is on display in the new museum at Yorktown in Colonial National Historical Park; the rest are available to students in the study collection at Jamestown.

Harold L. Peterson

A POSSIBLE EXAMPLE OF WAR OF 1812 NAVAL HEADGEAR

Illustrated herewith is an interesting early helmet believed to have been worn by American seamen of the period 1800-1815. Documentary references to seamen wearing helmers of rope and of leather have been noted by naval historians writing of this period in the past, and there are a few prints and paintings which show such headgear in use.

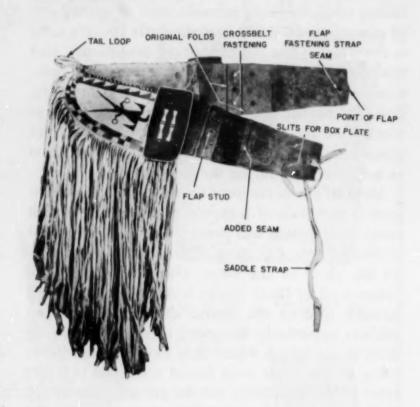


The present specimen was purchased by Member B. R. Lewis in Baltimore in 1945 from among a group of objects that had belonged to Commodore John Rodgers. The fact of its association with Commodore Rodgers plus the close resemblance of this helmet to those shown in a painting of a War of 1812 action (albeit the painting was executed in the 1850's) now in the Museum of the United States Naval Academy leads to the assumption that it is a naval headpiece. The general construction would indicate a date no later than the close of the War of 1812.

The helmet itself is of hard black leather bound with straps of iron painted black. The straps which cross at the top of the skull and terminate at the front and back and the center of each side are turned up at the ends to support a turban of cloth or perhaps a rope wrapping for additional protection. At one time there was a chinstrap of leather protected on the outside by double-ended scales of tinned iron. At the front there is a peak or visor. Some paintings of helmets of the period indicate peaks both fore and aft in the manner of the caps of British "Bobbies," but this helmet apparently never had more than one. Colonel Lewis presented this helmet to the National Park Service in 1953, and it is now on display at Fort McHenry National Memorial and Historic Shrine in Balti-Harold L. Peterson more.

A NON-REGULATION USE OF THE CIVIL WAR CARTRIDGE BOX

While the Ordnance Department was casting around for a way to whittle down the huge stockpile of surplus cartridge boxes that were left over from the Rebellion, at least one Indian had found a practical use for two of them. This novel use of the "40 round" box is to be seen in the collection of Plains Indian material in the Peabody Museum at Harvard University (No. 27587), and was collected in the late 1800's.



The piece of horse furniture pictured is a crupper for the saddle of a Ponca Indian, and follows the usual ornate design of beading and buckskin fringing with which most of their equipment was adorned. The unusual feature in this particular specimen is the use of cartridge boxes for the heavy leather straps that make up the body of the side straps. These boxes have been opened at the seams, cut down along the edges, and have had all of the hardware and rivets removed. Only one seam has been added, and two holes have been punched near the points of the flaps for the attachment of the saddle straps. The inside folds of the original box can be seen on the upper (near or left) strap.

Stanley J. Olsen

TORCHLIGHT SHAKO

The shako illustrated is typical of the post-Civil War period—blue felt, leather top and visor. However, in place of the conventional pompon it has a tin oil can torch on top with a wire loop soldered to the front underside to set into the pompon hole in the top of the shako. The can is three inches high in the front and holds about half a pint of



oil with a woven cloth wick thru the small opening in top—quite similar to tin household whale oil lamps.

This type of torchlight shako was used by militia about 1880-90 in night parades and, in their resplendent uniforms, they must have made a very impressive sight—shiny rifles on their shoulders and the torch burning on top of their shakos. I can almost hear the village wit on the sidelines shouting "Here come the Hot Heads."

Waverly P. Lewis

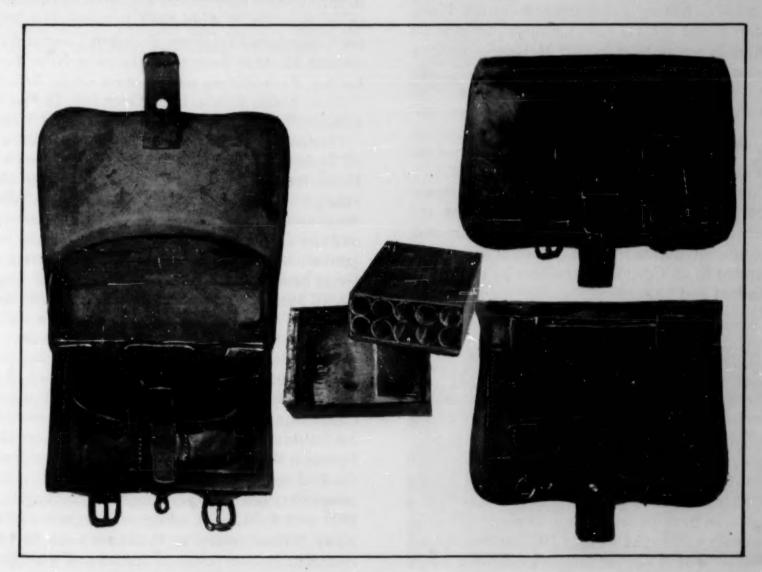
QUESTION: FOR WHAT CARTRIDGE WAS THIS BOX DESIGNED

This specimen from Member Richard N. Ferris' collection is pictured in hope of identification.

Aside from its dimensions this is a standard type Civil War issue cartridge box. It is equipped with buckles for shoulder belt as well as waist belt loops. It is also provided with an implement pocket and equipped with two tins that measure 3" wide, 4\%" deep, and 1\%" thick. The top tray of each tin is quite shallow, being only 1\%" deep and further divided into 10 sections each by \%" diameter tin tubes or thimbles soldered in the tray.

Member Sidney C. Kerksis made a battlefield recovery of a small cluster of such tubes about two years ago.

Robert L. Miller



GAZETTE

On 1 May 1957, the National Park Service of the Department of the Interior began a Historical and Archeological Research Project for Fort McHenry National Monument and Historic Shrine. This project is part of an extensive ten-year Park Service development program begun in 1956 and known as Mission 66. The aim of Mission 66 is to have all Park Service areas as fully developed as possible for the pleasure of their visitors by 1966, the fiftieth anniversary of the establishment of the National Park Service. At the moment, the Mission 66 project for Fort McHenry is in the research stage.

The primary purpose of historical research for Fort McHenry is to determine the appearance of the fort during the British bombardment over September 13-14, 1814. Information concerning the water battery, the star fort, and the various buildings within and without the star fort is needed. Although attention is concentrated upon 1814, material concerning Fort McHenry during any period of its history is also urgently desired. If any readers of the MC&H have manuscripts or prints relating in any fashion to Fort McHenry, the Park Service certainly would appreciate having an opportunity to look at them. The historians at the fort are also vitally interested in the ordnance, uniforms, and barracks' furnishings of the 1812 period. Any aid or suggestions concerning a study of the preceding subjects would be extremely helpful.

Communications should be addressed as follows: Superintendent, Fort McHenry National Monument and Historic Shrine, Baltimore 30, Maryland. A cordial invitation to write or visit at any time is extended to all Company members by the Superintendent and his staff.

KEEPING TRADITION ALIVE

Parades and reviews are the traditional ceremonial form for paying honors to dignitaries, allowing a commander to view his entire force at one time, displaying military might, and impressing the troops themselves with the corporate power of their assembled units. Military reviews of division or larger size have become commonplace in recent years with a maximum of over 100 divisions fielded in World War II and the largest peacetime forces

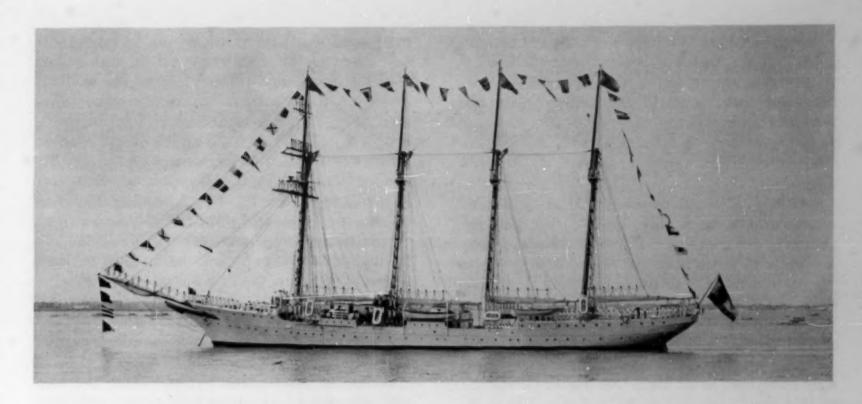
in our history maintained since. Our alliances in World War II, Korea, and NATO often have caused these reviews to have an international flavor with troops of other nations taking part.

A large military review takes relatively little space and is relatively easily arranged. A comparable naval review is quite a different matter. Ships must sail great distances to participate, vast dock and anchorage areas must be provided for the assemblage, and huge quantities of costly fuel oil are burned. In fact, since 1893 there have been only 16 naval reviews in U. S. waters. Three of these have been international in scope. The latest of these and first international naval review in the U. S. in 50 years was held last 12 June to commemorate the 350th Anniversary of the founding of Jamestown.

As part of the background publicity of this year's International Naval Review, the Navy compiled a list of past naval reviews. It might be well to record them here lest the listing be again buried in the files. On 26 April 1893, in connection with the Columbian Exposition, President Cleveland reviewed 35 ships from ten nations in New York harbor. Participating nations were Great Britain, France, Brazil, Russia, Italy, Germany, The Netherlands, Spain, Argentina, and the United States.

President Roosevelt reviewed the Atlantic Fleet off Oyster Bay, Long Island on 3 September 1906. He reviewed an international force the following year on 26 April in conjunction with the 300th Anniversary of Jamestown. Fifty ships from seven nations were reviewed in Hampton Roads; Argentina, Austria-Hungary, Brazil, Chile, Germany, Great Britain, and the entire U. S. Atlantic Fleet. On 10 June the same year, ships from Norway, Sweden, The Netherlands, Italy, and Japan visited Hampton Roads for the Jamestown observance.

Three U. S. naval reviews were held in 1915; one at New York with President Wilson reviewing the Atlantic Fleet, one at Boston, and one at Charleston. 1918 saw a fleet review at New York by Secretary of the Navy Daniels, and in 1919 President Wilson on board U.S.S. Oregon reviewed the Pacific Fleet in Puget Sound. In 1921 a fleet review was held in Hampton Roads and again in 1927 with President Coolidge and Secretary of the Navy Wilbur reviewing the latter year. In 1930 President Hoover reviewed the fleet off the Chesa-



Above: Spanish four-masted training schooner Juan Sebastian De Elcano full dressed with crew manning the yards in the International Naval Review, 12 June 1957. U.S. Navy Photograph. Below: An honor guard of Portuguese sailors present arms as U.S. Marines raise Portugal's flag in honoring that nation's Nationall Day, 10 June, during the Review Week ceremonies. U.S. Marine Photograph.

peake Capes and in 1934 President Roosevelt officiated at another review in New York harbor. At the close of World War II, in October 1945, a limited fleet review was held in New York harbor by President Truman and eleven years later in 1956, Secretary of the Navy Anderson reviewed the First Fleet off Long Beach, California.

Invitations to take part in the 1957 Interntaional Naval Review were limited to those nations which might have a special reason to celebrate the colonization of North America. The invitation list included all the nations of the Americas; those European countries which participated in the trans-Atlantic exploration and settlement of this country; and all member nations of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization.

Seventeen nations accepted this invitation and sent 33 warships manned by 12,000 sailors to represent them. The nations were: Uruguay, Dominican Republic, Cuba, Turkey, Portugal, Canada, France, Italy, Peru, Belgium, Colombia, The Netherlands, Great Britain, Spain, Norway, Denmark, and Venezuela.



As each of these 33 foreign ships entered Hampton Roads she fired a 21-gun salute to the United States which was answered from Fortress Monroe. Each ship then fired a 17-gun salute to Admiral Wright, Commander in Chief Atlantic Fleet and Supreme Allied Commander Atlantic, which was returned by U.S.S. *Norfolk* anchored off Old Point Comfort.

The day before the review, the 33 visiting menof-war and 80 U. S. ships took station and anchored in two columns in Hampton Roads extending some 14 miles from the Naval Base to Cape Henry. On the day of the review, the reviewing ship, U.S.S. Canberra, with Secretary of Defense Wilson embarked, passed the length of one column of full dressed ships and back the other while crews manned the rails at salute and 19-gun salutes were exchanged in his honor. An additional feature of this review was a "fly by" of over 200 U. S. Navy and Marine and British Fleet Air Arm aircraft.

Each guest ship was assigned a similar type U. S. ship as its "host." The two were berthed together and the U. S. ship aided the guest ship in

matters of logistics, protocol, and in taking full advantage of the wide range of recreation and entertainment opportunities offered the visitors. This exchange was by no means one-sided, however. Many of the foreign ships brought bands; a British Royal Marine Band on the aircraft carrier HMS Ark Royal, a bagpipe band on the French cruiser De Grasse, and the very excellent Royal Netherlands Marine Band on the cruiser De Zeven Provincien, to mention but three. These bands, together with ship guards, participated widely throughout the Hampton Roads area in military and civic ceremonies as well as in concerts. A highlight was an all naval street parade which for variety of uniforms, well executed marching, and fine military music, rivaled many a military street parade.

Increasing costs, wartime employment, and cold war operational commitments have nearly relegated the naval review in recent years to no more than a memory. Participants and spectators alike were indeed fortunate to witness a rare revival of a spectacular naval ceremony this past summer.

Col. Brooke Nihart, USMC



The band of the British Royal Marines is readied by Staff Bandmaster Martin for the Queen's Birthday Review, 13 June, during International Naval Review Week. U.S. Marine Corps Photo

PUBLICATIONS

Patton and His Pistols by Milton F. Perry and Barbara W. Parke, Harrisburg, Pa., The Stackpole Company, 1957, 138 pages, Illustrated, \$4.85.

COMPANY Member Perry and his collaborator, former Army wife Parke, have produced in this brief account an admirable addition to the growing body of literature on one of America's best known combat leaders of World War II. Patton and His Pistols is not, nor was it intended to be, the definitive biography of the general, but, it is certaintly a significant contribution to this yet-to-be-written work. Despite the fact that one or two minor errors have crept into the book, errors probably occasioned by editorial and proofing oversights, it should be welcomed by the collector, the historian, and the general reader alike.

The collector will be interested in the information on General Patton's weapons and the numerous photographs. Several of the most famous pistols are carefully described and their histories given in some detail. The historian will appreciate the story of the guns and the place that they played in Patton's life, particularly for the insight that they give into the character of "Old Blood and Guts."

But, perhaps most important of all, the thoughtful reader, especially the thoughtful military reader, will discern in the pages of this narrative a restatement of that most valuable of truths; the "reason why" General Patton adopted colorful uniforms and elected to carry his own distinctive weapons in preference to the Government issue .45 caliber automatic pistol, the reason why he was such an advocate for correct military dress and form. General Patton himself, as told to and recorded by the authors, put it very simply, "I want the men of the Third Army to know where I am, . . . and that I risk the same dangers that they do . . ." In short he knew the real key to the success of any fighting organization—its leadership and the mutual faith, confidence, and respect of follower and leader, leader and his subordinates. It is therefore in the recounting of General Patton's efforts to obtain and exercise leadership over fighting men, as a second lieutenant of cavalry and as the Commanding General of Third Army, that co-authors Perry and Parke have most admirably succeeded. They complement the picture of Patton the tactician and student of military affairs with a clearly drawn protrait of Patton the fighting man and leader of fighting men.

Rowland P. Gill

In addition to the Patton book reviewed above recent months have seen the publication of three other gun books of interest to members. Chief among them is Gas, Air & Spring Guns of the World by W. H. B. Smith (Military Service Publishing Co., \$7.50). In this comprehensive manual, similar in format to the author's Small Arms of the World, the history of guns which fired without gunpowder is traced from Hero of Alexandria to the present. All of the modern models and most of the important ancient ones are illustrated and described in detail, making this a basic reference volume on the subject.

Member Jac Weller has collaborated with Frank Jury of the Firearms Identification Laboratory, New Jersey State Police to revise Maj. Gen. Julian S. Hatcher's standard text, Firearms Investigation Identification and Evidence (The Stackpole Co., \$10). The resulting product is a tightly-packed weighty volume of some 536 pages touching on almost every phase of criminal work related to firearms. Finally, C. B. Colby has added another book on firearms to his well-known juvenile series: Firearms by Winchester (Coward-McCann, \$2). There is some history, but most of the book's 48 pages are devoted to modern Winchesters and their manufacture. Colby's earlier book in this series, Six-Shooter, is of far more interest from the historical standpoint.

Several Company members had a hand in developing the material for a recent special issue of the Revue Historique De L'Armée commemorating the two hundredth anniversary of the birth of Lafayette as well as the fortieth anniversary of the entry of the United States into World War I. The elaborate booklet, available in either a French or an English version, is titled Fraternité D'Armes Franco-Américaine; the total cost, including postage and handling, to overseas readers is 900 francs from

the Revue at the Ministre de la Guerre, 217, bd St-Germain, Paris (VII). The issue contains sections on the Revolution, both World Wars, as well as an article on West Point, one on the French Battalion in Korea, and one reviewing American military assistance. The authorship of the 16 articles included is equally divided between the two countries. Of special interest is the piece, "French Influence on Early Uniforms of the United States Army," prepared by Members Frederick P. Todd and Detmar H. Finke, and illustrated in part by two COMPANY plates done by H. Charles Mc-Barron, Jr. and Colonel Todd. The COMPANY plates and six of the Ogden series are reproduced in color as is a color photograph of the Statue of Liberty. The standard of the remainder of the numerous illustrations is high; two half tone portraits of Rochambeau and Lafayette suitably mounted for framing are very well done.

Among the Civil War books to reach the market during the past quarter, two at least are worthy of noting for their special interest. The Twentieth

Maine by John J. Pullen (J. B. Lippincott, \$5) is a regimental history with a broad perspective. Excellently written with vivid descriptions of many activities in camp and battle it recreates the experiences of this volunteer outfit as few similar books have done. There are a number of photographic illustrations, including a few of soldiers in the regiment that have not been previously published. The other Civil War volume of interest is The Rebel Shore by James M. Merrill (Little, Brown & Co., \$4.75). Surprisingly few books have been written about the important naval actions of the Civil War as compared with the vast bibliography on the land campaigns. Thus every new addition to the list is welcome. Merrill writes exceptionally well in a semi-journalistic style and presents in this book a general overall picture of the naval war which should be useful for anyone wishing such a quick briefing. There is an excellent bibliographical essay, but the lack of footnotes and the very general treatment of the subject prevent it from becoming the one standard solid reference on the subject that students have long desired.

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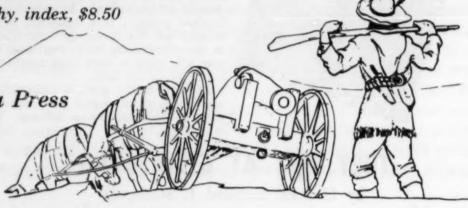
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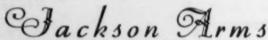
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